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SCHOOL AND SOCIETY

Volume XXVIII SATURDAY, AUGUST 25, 1928 Number 713

ISAAC WATTS—AN UNSUNG SINGER OF EDUCATION

THE passing of the centuries reveals an interesting tendency to revaluate the achievements of individuals in the light of new points of view. This is well exemplified in the case of Isaac Watts, whose claim to immortality has been heretofore based upon his contributions as a divine and poet. With a diminution of interest in the religious themes he treated and with a dismissal of his poetry as "doggerel," he seems about to be forgotten. But there is one phase of his activity that has been largely overlooked; that is, his educational writings. Their popularity among early American schoolmen should win some recognition for their author in this country to-day.

Young Isaac entered at birth into a stimulating and stirring environment. During the last decades of the seventeenth century the struggle between the dissenters and the Anglican Church was still at a high pitch. Charles II was ruthlessly suppressing all traces of the Puritan Commonwealth and Watts' parents were among those who felt the weight of the royal hand. Some of the infant's earliest contacts with life were made at the breast of his mother, while she sat on prison steps; within, his father languished, suffering "for conscience's sake."[1] With such a background it would have been surprising if the life and thought of young Watts had not become permeated with religion. The impress of Calvin was still potent among English dissenters.

Education likewise played a prominent part in his early life. No less profound and significant changes were being felt in that realm than in religion. The formalized humanism of the schools was being subjected to critical attacks by educational thinkers. Educators were being forced to reexamine their axioms and their aims in the light of the new realism. As advances in science were undermining the naive acceptance of authority, so were the writings of Bacon and Locke undermining the Ciceronian curricula. Even writers friendly to humanism, such as Erasmus and Milton, had warned against the barrenness of formalism. And nowhere in England was there a greater interest in the problems of education than among the Calvinistic dissenters.

Watts' first experience as a teacher began in 1694; in that year he became a tutor to the son of Sir John Hartopp at Stoke Newington, a position he retained for five years. For his pupil he drew up the rudiments of logic; these notes he later enlarged into the volume, "Logick." The work was based principally on that of Leclerc and was published in 1725. It so well met the needs of the time that it was accepted in the English universities.

He began his clerical career as an assistant to Dr. Chauncey in Mark Lane, London, and two years later he was made pastor. Overstudy in his youth had undermined his health, however, and in 1712 a fever forced him to relinquish his pastorate. The last thirty-six years of his

[1] Robert Anderson, "Poets of Great Britain," Vol. IX, London, 1794, p. 287.

life Watts spent as a guest at the home of Sir Thomas Abney. The latter had been lord mayor of London and was one of the wealthiest and most influential of the dissenters. These years were particularly happy ones for Watts. He still retained his connection with his original church, but ill-health kept his pastoral duties light.

For the daughters of Sir Thomas he wrote "The Art of Reading and Writing English" (1721). Through motives of gratitude to his patron he seriously took up the writing of educational works. His catechisms, one for children of three or four years, and one for those of seven or eight, were composed for the use of his benefactor's daughters. Both of them were preparatory to the shorter catechism and represented an attempt to reach the child's understanding. They were accompanied by "A Preservative from the Sins and Follies of Childhood and Youth," also in catechetical form. Watts loved children and liked to write for them.

In 1728 he wrote "An Essay Towards the Encouragement of Charity Schools," a plea to the dissenters to establish schools for the poor. "The Improvement of the Mind" (1741) was probably his most widely used book. In "A Discourse on the Education of Children and Youth" (2nd Ed., 1769) Watts expounded his ideas on educational methods. "The Knowledge of the Heavens and the Earth Made Easy" (1726) indicated the breadth of his interests, from theology to science.

The pedagogical ideas of Watts are at times paradoxical. In general he was a product of his age, but here and there are flashes which bespeak the Romantic rather than the Rationalist. And some of his pronouncements are as sound to-day as they were in the eighteenth century.

In natural philosophy he bowed to Newton, in logic to Locke. He especially agreed with the latter upon the supreme importance of the reason to mankind. Nor did he overlook the educational implications of rationalism; of all the faculties of mankind the one most important and most worthy of training was the understanding. Frequently he was tempted to indulge in rhapsody over this, "the glory of human nature."[2] Children should be taught by reason; they should be given reasons for doing things. Only in this way did he believe the right type of conduct could be evolved. After his model child had arrived at the age of fifteen, "he was suffered to admit nothing into his full assent, till his mind saw the rational evidence of the proposition itself."[3] The boy's tutor was very careful never to indoctrinate him "with a magisterial air," a care that is practiced by few parents in this age of propaganda. Even in matters of theology the boy was urged to test all dogmas in the light of reason, and to accept only those which passed the test.

But Watts would not put his trust in exercise of the understanding alone. He was wise enough to realize the importance of the child's native curiosity in the development of reason. He pointed out the novelty of all life to a child; and that novelty is attractive. Enrichment of the understanding, he believed, should be attained by a wide acquaintance with the facts of nature. The rôle of the parent or teacher would then largely be a matter of answering questions and of stimulating further questions from the spontaneous interest of the child. He wrote:

> You who instruct them should allure their young curiosity to ask many questions, encourage them in it, and gratify their inquiries, by giving them the best and most satisfactory answers you can frame, and accommodate all your language to their capacity.[4]

[2] Isaac Watts, "A Discourse on the Education of Children and Youth," London, 1798, p. 336.

[3] *Ibid.*, 364.

[4] *Ibid.*, 303.

Since in general Watts agreed with Locke, it is not surprising that he should accept the latter's ideas on faculty psychology. He quite explicitly divided the mind into "faculties," or "natural powers." These included understanding, memory, judgment, reasoning, conscience.[5] That he did not consider this division a mere matter of verbal technique is indicated by the fact that he quite clearly prescribed definite types of training for each faculty. Exercise he stressed as the most important factor in the development of each power.

One difficulty in determining any writer's opinion on the question of formal discipline or transfer of training is the ambiguity attached to those terms by modern writers on the subject. Frequently educational theorists engage in spirited discussions of transfer—discussions colored deeply with emotion—and yet no serious attempt is made to delimit the subject of their debates. Opponents of formal discipline almost invariably accuse its defenders of accepting far more than they actually do. Effigies of straw are often set up by the militant-minded of both sides and then gleefully demolished. Don Quixotes are no less ridiculous in the field of intellect than in that of chivalry.

Unfortunately, Watts was less clear in his educational deductions than in his basic assumptions. When he made the statement that "the general principles [of mathematics and the sciences] have . . . valuable and excellent uses . . . for the exercise and improvement of the faculties of the mind,"[6] it is not quite clear to what he referred. Nor did he clarify the situation by hastening to include the fact that they "are often made of admirable service in human life." Somewhat less vague was his insistence that the sciences and poetry enlarge the capacity of the mind. In the case of the sciences he emphasized the value of a knowledge of the wonders of the universe in order that future reading might be better comprehended. Poetry he advocated because of the sublime ideas contained in it; the mind thus became familiarized with the beauties of the imagination. It seems more probable that instead of transfer Watts had in mind in this instance some crude concept of apperception. The aim of these studies implied in his discussion is remarkably similar to that later expressed by the Herbartians.

The real concept which Watts held regarding the matter of general transfer was probably best implied in his statement that

> Clear and distinct apprehension of the things which we commit to memory is necessary in order to make them stick and dwell there. . . . Many a lad forgets what has been taught him, merely because he never well understood it: he never clearly and distinctly took in the meanings of those sounds and syllables which he was required to get by heart.[7]

And conversely,

> It must be acknowledged that where a happy memory is found in any person, there is one good foundation laid for a wise and just judgment of things, wheresoever the natural genius has anything of sagacity and brightness to make a right use of it.[8]

Here, quite probably, is the heart of the matter. The development and use of one faculty may aid in the development of another, inasmuch as it formulates techniques valuable to the second; to that extent it may be called "transfer." The distinction is merely a verbal one. It most assuredly does not suppose any general and mystical improvement of the whole mind with the improvement of one faculty.

Watts' recommended course of study was rather remarkable for its extensiveness and its versatility. In these respects, though

[5] *Ibid.*

[6] Watts, "The Improvement of the Mind," London, 1798, p. 209.

[7] *Ibid.*, 170.

[8] *Ibid.*, 162.

not in its content, it approached the famous curriculum of Milton. At the basis of any education he placed the common arts—reading, writing, spelling and accounts. Even in a social way their utility was readily discernible. The study of spelling, for example, he advised in order to avoid blunders in writing letters.[9]

Following this basic training he would have children given a good knowledge of life, of themselves, of others, and of the world in general. This instruction, he insisted, should be of a useful nature, information that would aid them in their social intercourse and in their life work.

> Young persons should apply themselves to know those things which most nearly concern them, and which have the most immediate relation to their own business and duty, to their own interest and welfare: and it is a valuable part of wisdom to neglect other things, and not to waste our time and spirits in them, when they stand in any competition with our proper and most important work.[10]

The principal part of Watts' course of study included what he termed the "ornaments and accomplishments." Because of their social value and the impossibility of an elegant education without them, children should be taught logic, arithmetic, algebra, geometry, geography, astronomy, natural philosophy, history, poesy, singing, drawing, painting, fencing, riding and dancing.[11] French might be added because of its aid in understanding English, but he did not consider it particularly valuable. Likewise those with plenty of leisure might include Latin and Greek. The climax of all this, however, was training in deportment. He insisted that:

> Among all the accomplishments of youth there is none preferable to a decent and agreeable behavior among men, a modest freedom of speech, a soft and elegant manner of address, a graceful and lovely deportment, a cheerful gravity and good humor, with a mind appearing ever serene under the ruffling accidents of human life.[12]

The study of the sciences he believed should be begun at an early age, preferably at nine or ten. They would be very easily learned at that time, because the natural imagination of the child would assist in the understanding of them. Their content would be interesting and the pupil would not need any urging to master them. That Watts was familiar with the Latin texts of Comenius was indicated by his advice to mingle science with Latin to make the latter more "tolerable" to the youth learning it. It was particularly important, he believed, to teach the sciences early, because of their great usefulness.

> And surely it is best as far as possible to train up children in the knowledge of those things which they should never forget rather than to let them waste years of life in trifles or in hard words which are not worth remembering.[13]

Watts did not share with his age the popular fallacy that a child was merely a miniature adult, in mind as well as in body. He followed his master, Locke, and preceded Rousseau, in his insistence on the recognition of mental growth. "The teachers of children," he wrote, "should have some prudence to distinguish their ages."[14] That he did not carry the idea to its extreme logical conclusions is scarcely to be wondered at; Watts had neither the genius of Locke nor the rebellious spirit of Rousseau.

If one reads of the attitude toward children in early New England, he would envisage the Puritan Watts as a stern disciplinarian. But the severities of Puritan-

[9] Watts, "A Discourse on the Education of Children and Youth," p. 319.

[10] *Ibid.*, 325 f.

[11] *Ibid.*, 328 ff.

[12] *Ibid.*, 335.

[13] Watts, "The Improvement of the Mind," p. 206.

[14] Watts, "A Discourse on the Education of Children and Youth," p. 305.

ism had somewhat spent their force by the beginning of the eighteenth century. And in many ways this mild divine reflected the joyous attitude of the first century rather than the harsh austerities of Geneva.

One disciplinary suggestion that he made was particularly noteworthy, because of the sound psychology involved in it; modern parents and teachers might frequently make judicious use of it. Speaking of his fictitious child, he said:

> He was enticed sometimes to the love of letters, by making his lesson a reward of some domestic duty; and a permission to pursue some parts of learning was the appointed recompense of his diligence and improvement in others.[15]

How many children have had their love of learning or of labor forever destroyed, because study had been prescribed for them as a punishment and not permitted them as a reward; of such a delicate mechanism is the child's mind constituted.

Whipping, Watts considered particularly ill-advised. This was a revolutionary doctrine in the eighteenth century, when every school had its whipping-post and when every parent took the dictum of the Hebrew epigrammatist to heart. They had yet to learn that epigrams should be read, not obeyed. Watts, wiser than Solomon in this, realized that a smile is more potent than a threat. His model child was

> Never driven to practice anything by a frown or a hasty word, where it was possible for kinder affections to work the same effect by indulgence and delay.[16]

That Watts' influence was wide-spread in the educational circles of England is, of course, to be expected. That his "Logick" was considered valuable enough to be accepted by the universities speaks well for its merit. But his greatest influence was among the dissenters and especially in their academies. His fame as a divine and as a theological writer would almost insure the acceptance of his text-books. Then, too, his popularization of Locke was welcome; the latter was very favorably received by the nonconformists.

It is not so well known that Watts' influence was also very extensive in the American colonies. Nor was the influence limited to the Congregationalists; as in England he was popular in all sects. Thomas Hollis, the famous Baptist benefactor of Harvard College, numbered Watts among his intimate friends. When in 1727 Hollis founded the first Harvard professorship of mathematics and natural philosophy, he wished it established upon sound principles. To secure these he called upon his educated acquaintances for plans and suggestions. Among the five complete plans submitted was one from Watts. These were forwarded by Hollis to the College Corporation for their selection and approval.[17]

Casting about for a candidate for the chair he had endowed, Hollis' interest was attracted to Isaac Greenwood. Not trusting his own judgment in scientific matters, he again consulted his friends. And Watts was one of the four who examined Greenwood in regard to his fitness for the position. As a result, the latter received the position.[18] He was shortly afterward discharged, but not because of academic unfitness.

Through Hollis, Watts acquired considerable interest in the Massachusetts college and made several donations to it. The Harvard records show a gift from him as early as 1724.[19] Again in 1737 he gave several books to the college library.

[15] *Ibid.*, 356 *f.*

[16] *Ibid.*, 361.

[17] Josiah Quincy, "History of Harvard University," Vol. I, Cambridge, 1840, p. 399.

[18] *Ibid.*, Vol. II, p. 15.

[19] Samuel B. Eliot, "History of Harvard College," Boston, 1848, p. 169.

Copies of his own works he sent across as soon as they were published.[20]

Yale was likewise a recipient of the good-hearted Watts' benefactions. He sent a gift of all his works and later a pair of globes to that institution. The college also used his text-books; in 1779 his "Logick" was being used in the sophomore class.

Other than the Puritan colleges made use of Watts' text-books; their clearness and simplicity evidently appealed to instructors. Originality is not demanded of a text-book writer. In 1756 Provost William Smith published a proposed curriculum for Pennsylvania College. Here one would expect to find no trace of Puritan influence. Yet the course of study for freshmen listed Watts' "Logick," "Improvement of the Mind," "Ontology," and "Essays."

In the neighboring colony to the north the College of New Jersey introduced into its curriculum in 1750 Watts' "Ontology," "Astronomy," and "Logick."[21] Evidence of the wide dessemination of his writings can also be found in the early records of Brown University. Among the gifts which that college received in 1771 were two of Watts' books. Its total library consisted of about 250 volumes and among these were his "Philosophical Essays" and "On the Passions."[22]

Probably the most surprising and convincing bit of evidence as to how thoroughly the works of this English divine had permeated the colonial society is found in connection with Dartmouth College. When that institution was established in the wilderness of New Hampshire, clear beyond the outskirts of civilization, the books of Watts had preceded it. A member of the first class at Dartmouth in 1770 was Samuel Gray, who had prepared for college in the "Indian Charity School" at Lebanon. And at this institution he had studied and mastered Watts' "Logick."[23] Two years later the Reverend Simeon Williams, of Windham, New Hampshire, was preparing students to be juniors at Dartmouth. He likewise grounded them in the "Logick."[24] From New Hampshire to Pennsylvania was truly a broad field. It is doubtful if there were many authors who enjoyed a greater dissemination among these pioneering peoples.

Watts was no less well known in the early American academies than in the universities. This was to be expected in view of the close relationship between the New England institutions and their prototypes in the mother country. His influence was especially noticeable in those pioneer schools of New England, the Phillips academies. Judge Samuel Phillips was intensely interested in the work of the outstanding English dissenters. Especially beloved were Matthew Henry and the two friends, Isaac Watts and Philip Doddridge. It is reported that the judge memorized most of Watts' poetry.

Many of the educational ideas of Samuel Phillips reveal a similarity to those of Locke; it is probable that he obtained them largely through Watts' popularizations. His original platform for the policy of Andover was distinctly realistic. The judge, in fact, opposed the study of Latin entirely; but Eliphalet Pearson, the first preceptor, converted him to the idea of its inclusion. The text-books of Watts were, of course, used in the schools. The students were even required to learn by heart some of his hymns for children and parts of his catechism.

Since the Phillips academies were to a great extent the models for many later

[20] *Ibid.*, 171.

[21] U. S. Bureau of Education, "Circular of Information," No. 1, 1899, p. 57.

[22] Reuben A. Guild, "History of Brown University," Providence, 1867, p. 82.

[23] Baxter P. Smith, "History of Dartmouth College," Boston, 1878, p. 59.

[24] *Ibid.*, 60.

ones, it was to be expected that their espousal of Watts' text-books would be imitated by the more recent schools. The works seem to have been especially popular in the female seminaries that began to spring up in the first quarter of the nineteenth century. Quite possibly Watts' progressive attitude toward the education of girls favorably inclined the sex to him. When Catherine Fiske began to teach young women at Keene, New Hampshire, Watts' "Improvement of the Mind" was used in her school. One of the outstanding institutions of this type was Joseph Emerson's Female Seminary at Wethersfield, Connecticut. And his prospectus, published in 1826, listed "The Improvement of the Mind" as a text in the senior class.[25] Emerson, in fact, edited the work and published it with a series of questions based on each chapter. So extensively was this American edition used that at least one revision was published.

From the academies and seminaries Watts' works passed over into some of the early high schools. "The Improvement of the Mind" was being used in the Providence High School in 1828. Some of his educational ideas attained a strong hold upon teachers of that period. Instructors in this Rhode Island school at the time agreed upon "the necessity of mental discipline"; adding, "that algebra and geometry have this tendency, none will pretend to deny."[26] In the very book they were using Watts had insisted strongly upon the disciplinary value of mathematics.

The influence of Watts in America extended even beyond the confines of the schools. So versatile had been his productions that both young and old found interest and profit in them. Not only did American children study from his "Compleat Spelling-Book," but at an even earlier age they learned his "Young Child's Catechism." An author could scarcely desire a more wide-spread diffusion of his writings than would be effected by their inclusion in the ubiquitous "New England Primer." At least one edition of that work, that of 1777, contained four contributions from Watts' pen.[27]

The almost universal knowledge of his writings among adults is evidenced by the frequent mention of, or quotation from them, found in early nineteenth-century writers. James G. Carter in his "Letters . . . on the Free Schools of New England" quoted from "The Improvement of the Mind" in support of the value of arithmetic. He agreed with Watts on the disciplinary value of that subject.[28]

Even a generation later Watts was still well known. In 1856 a contributor to Barnard's *American Journal of Education* in an article on reading presented ten different quotations from the English divine's work on the mind.[29] His educational influence was probably as wide-spread as his theological; and, concerning the latter, one writer remarked, "Watts' influence as a theologian with the ministers in New England . . . was hardly less than it was in England."[30]

In 1865, when Henry Barnard published his list of text-books used in America, nine

[25] *American Journal of Education*, I (1826), p. 507.

[26] G. A. Dewitt and J. Kingsbury, "Providence High School," *American Journal of Education*, III (1828), p. 428.

[27] "The New England Primer," Boston, 1777. Facsimile in Barnard's *American Journal of Education*, V (1880), pp. 381, 385.

[28] James G. Carter, "Improvement in Arithmetical Instruction," *American Journal of Education*, II (1827), p. 32.

[29] T. H. Vail, "Hints on Reading," Barnard's *American Journal of Education*, II (1856), p. 216 ff.

[30] Charles Hammond, "New England Academies and Classical Schools," Barnard's *American Journal of Education*, XVI (1866), p. 414.

of Watts' works were included.[31] Several significant facts can be gleaned from this list. All but two of the nine books had been published in America and several had gone through two or more editions. Possibly even more significant is the fact that the "Logick" and "The Improvement of the Mind" had been published in this country after the Revolution. Strong indeed must have been his hold upon American hearts to retain his popularity through the post-war nationalism. "American texts for American schools" was the cry of the period, a cry that seems to rise with cyclic persistence from first-generation autochthons. Most British writers were banned. But Isaac Watts, ever genial and ever versatile, remained. His position was secure—even against the storms of hysteria.

Paul J. Fay

Ohio State University

THE IMPROVEMENT OF COLLEGE MARKING SYSTEMS

During the last twenty years there has been considerable agitation by various educators for improvement of marking systems. Undoubtedly the problem was discussed prior to this period, but up until about 1905[1] practically nothing was written. The increase in numbers of students has had much to do with the increased agitation. As long as the president and the faculty could know all the students there was less need for a reliable marking system, but when students began to come by hundreds where before they had come by tens, the problem became one of prime importance.

While there has been in the last few years much agitation, some hard feelings and several hundred pages of periodical literature in connection with the problem, very little has been accomplished. The whole problem is surrounded by an emotional feeling which is very likely indicative of the unsound basis on which the matter rests. Are there any clues which might help to clear up this situation? I would like to make a few suggestions which may have some bearing in this connection.

It is assumed in this discussion that it is desirable to get one figure which best represents the composite work of the student. This is open to question, but can not be discussed here. It would seem to be the assumption that practically every institution in this country takes for granted.

I am not going to discuss the improvement of the process of differentiating between pupils in any single course. That problem has been discussed elsewhere; I shall limit myself to the problem of getting a composite indicator from all the student's courses. The marking within one course is fundamental, but it is not necessary to wait until it is perfect before attacking the problem of combining single marks.

When one examines the literature on marking systems at present available, one finds that almost all the material can be classified under the following headings: (a) "Presentation of Evidence to Show Variability between Instructors"; (b) "An Exhortation for Improvement"; (c) "A Suggested Plan for Bringing about the Improvement." Some papers include all three phases, some limit themselves to a or b. The objective evidence is limited in most cases to a presentation of present conditions. We can be certain wide variations in marking exist. It would seem that these wide variations which do now exist ought to make some differences, but do they, and if so, how much?

The suggested plans are for the most part based upon the use of the normal curve. Do the suggested plans improve the situation and if so, how much? What is the distribution of ability? Are the variations in ability from group to group of enough significance to warrant treatment? Do groups vary from year to year? Instructors insist they do. The answer to all these questions is that we do not know. But isn't it desirable that we set about to find out?

[31] Henry Barnard, "American Text-Books," Barnard's *American Journal of Education*, XV (1856), p. 568.

[1] *Cf.* "Examinations, Grades and Credits," J. McKeen Cattell, *The Popular Science Monthly*, February, 1905.

THE NATURE OF THE DISTRIBUTION OF ABILITY

The data with regard to the distribution of ability are mainly of the logical or inspection type. The logical deduces the shape of the curve by adding certain assumptions to the known fact that large random groups tend to give a normal curve. The difficulties are apparent, especially when various persons get opposite results.

The inspectionists go one step further objectively. They get distributions plotted and then by looking at them decide whether or not the normal curve is applicable. This too can not be accepted as a scientific procedure—it is too easy to alter quite markedly the appearance by such a simple thing as a change in the method of grouping scores. The process that should be applied is to test out the goodness of it and get a reportable result.

There is practically nothing available in this form. Thorndike and Bregman[2] have shown that the distribution of the ninth grade is normal, although some logicalites have assumed that even at that point it should be slightly skewed. Additional data on the form of distribution are given in Thorndike's "Measurement of Intelligence." It is possible to move the central tendency up or down and still keep the curve normal. In working with mental ability tests collected in a graduate institution, the author[3] found P equal to 695, which indicates the distribution is well described by the normal curve.

It is not enough, however, to show the distribution of native ability to be normal; we need to know about the distribution of specific abilities like Latin, English, mathematics, chemistry, etc. The answer to this problem will come only when there are available objective tests for all those subjects. One can not use present results because in a group in which ability is distributed according to the normal curve, if the test is too easy or too hard, the true picture is not forthcoming. Pressey[4] has called attention to the fact that even though the distribution of measures of native ability be normal, the distribution for any subject will not be normal unless certain factors like teaching emphasis and incentives are the same for all students.

One other factor that always enters into the practical situation is the administrative feasibility of any particular device. If I found that I could increase the correlation of a marking system with my criterion from .50 to .55 with an increase of about two hundred hours' labor per year, I might or might not use the system. If I were engaged in statistical research, I probably would; if I were in the position of the usual college officer, I almost certainly would not.

In our present state of darkness the normal curve is probably the best one to use. It is probably safer than to allow each instructor to determine subjectively his own distribution. We must admit, however, that we have no scientific justification for it; it should be tested out as fast as possible.

AMOUNT OF IMPROVEMENT

The next lack of evidence is in regard to the amount and nature of the improvement resulting from the installation of a supposedly better plan. One difficulty here is the fact that many of the plans never get off paper. But even when they have, people have been too prone to assume that decreased variability among instructors was desirable and a step in the right direction.

One thing that always can be done is to try out plans simultaneously and compare the differences or correlate the results. In the study mentioned the author found a correlation of .93 between an unweighted average of grades and system designed to correct for the variations between instructors. The r between the unweighted scores and a very elaborate score designed to correct not only variability but also differences in level was .91. It seemed that while there were wide variations between the way that instructors marked, when the results were balanced there was a sort of collective justice. This does not mean that such would always be the case; it would not. There were certain factors which made this situation distinc-

[2] *J. Ed. Res.*, 1924, 10: 271–8.

[3] "The Improvement of College Marking Systems," Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, 1927.

[4] Pressey, S. L., "Fundamental Misconceptions Involved in Current Marking Systems," SCHOOL AND SOCIETY, 1925, 21: 738.

tive. The point here is that one can not tell *a priori;* one must measure the difference.

It is not enough, however, to know that there is a difference; it is also necessary to be sure that it is in the right direction. Here is an exceedingly important field waiting for investigation. What are the criteria against which these composite scores are to be weighted; what, in other words, are marking systems for and how can one tell when the aims are achieved?

I will simply call attention to the need for study in regard to such problems as the weighting of marks from the senior year as compared with marks from the freshman year, or the weighting of marks from the engineering school as compared with the marks from the agricultural school. Are these differences measurable and significant? Techniques have been suggested for this purpose, but the usefulness of any technique must be actually tested for each institution.

The Handling of Marking Systems

The results from attempts to improve marking systems by assigning arbitrary percentages have not produced very satisfactory results and does not seem to be the desirable method at the present time. Under present plans an instructor is asked to do two things—rank the students in his class, which is a legitimate request, and secondly, to assign weights to the ranks, a task which he is not in position to do. This latter function requires seeing the particular group in comparison with all the other groups in the college. This is not the task for an instructor; it belongs to an administrator. The instructor should have a part in determining the policy to be followed, but the carrying out of the policy should be left to one person. He would use the devices suggested above to help him determine how to weight the ranks.

If there were available for every subject a series of standardized achievement tests, it would be possible for an instructor to weight his grades, objectively and easily, but it will be some time before that point is reached, although progress is certainly being made. It will be objected that such a plan will mechanize education and impersonalize it. It will impersonalize it only at a point where it is desirable to do just such a thing. From previous experiments one has some grounds for believing that just to the extent marking is impersonalized will the validity of the measures increase.

The criticism of mechanization is a fair one. It is possible to become so engrossed in watching the wheels run that one forgets what they are running for, but this need not be the case. If educators know just what they want marks for, there will be little danger at this point.

Marking systems in the final analysis have only one justification—to help the students. This help may be given in a number of ways. The student may be given an indication of his relative ability, the instructor may be helped properly to adjust his work to his students, the administration may be guided in its decisions about degrees, but in every case these things should be done for the students' benefit—immediate or ultimate. At present the chief use of marking systems is to determine who gets or does not get degrees and honors—mainly the matter of degrees. One reason that keeps marks from being more widely used is probably the difficulty in handling them in the present form. If colleges were to adopt a readily available system of marking, it would be possible to find out whether marks had any other possibilities. We especially need to emphasize their prognostic value.

This availability is another advantage for the suggestion for having the instructors rank the students and a single administrative officer turn these ranks into usable units. The ranks could be scaled in terms of a standard deviation unit in such a way that at any time it would be possible to get a single figure representing the student's position in comparison with the rest of the student body. One difficulty in connection with the use of letter grades is the problem of combining the various grades.

A final point in connection with marking systems is the present over-weighted gap between pass and fail. The differences in achievement between those just above and those just below the passing mark is not great, but the difference in effect is considerable. If there were some scientifically determined point such that people falling below that were known to be

unable to succeed in the things that follow, there might be some justification for such a sharp demarcation; but under existing conditions where the dividing line depends very largely upon the professor's own subjective opinion, the importance of this division would seem to be grossly over-weighted.

If the instructors are simply asked to rank their students, they are freed from the onus of making this distinction between those who can and those who can not. One of the biggest difficulties in connection with arbitrarily assigned percentages of grades has been around the percentages of failures. Instructors realize the weight attached to this mark and they hesitate to assume the burden of the responsibility. If the instructors simply ranked the students, it would be possible to do away with the specific mark of failure for each separate course and judge the student on the basis of his total work for the semester or for his college career.

The points I have tried to emphasize in connection with the improvement of marking systems have been: (1) The necessity for controlled study of the assumptions and the results; (2) the distinction between ranking and assigning weight; (3) the necessity for making marks really usable by putting them into the form in which they can be used; (4) the reduction of the gap between pass and fail.

The inculcation of all these things into a marking system is not easy and will not come perfectly in one step. When such a system or any part of it is attempted, it should be understood as tentative and careful records should be kept so that it will be possible to know after a period of several years the successes and failures of the plan.

RALPH B. SPENCE

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EDUCATIONAL EVENTS

JEWISH SCHOOLS IN PALESTINE

A SPECIAL correspondent to the New York *Times* writes that one of the first branches of development emphasized by the Zionist executive in Palestine was that of education. The government now recognizes the Palestine Zionist executive as the official educational agency for the Jews. About 65 per cent. of the Jewish children in the country are enrolled in the Zionist schools. The total enrolment amounts to about 18,000, distributed among kindergartens, elementary, secondary, vocational and teachers training schools. The remaining minority of Jewish children, about 8,000, are divided in the schools of the Alliance Israelite Universelle and the old-fashioned "Chedorim" and "Yeshivoth" (Jewish religious schools).

In the Zionist system of education there is a division, allowing for three different points of view. The majority of the children attend what are called the general schools; in the Mizrahi, or orthodox schools, there is an enrolment of about 30 per cent. and there is also a small minority in the schools of the Labor Federation.

In the general schools the system of education is similar to that which exists in Europe and America. In addition to the Bible and Hebrew literature, the children are taught the usual subjects. Particular emphasis is put on home geography. Frequent expeditions and observation lessons serve to bind the pupils to the land.

The Mizrahi schools are more definitely religious in character and orthodox in point of view. The course of study is a synthesis between the traditional course of Jewish study of the "Chedar" and "Yeshivah," wholly religious in character and based on the Bible and the Talmud, and the modern secular subjects.

The schools of the Federation of Labor are making perhaps the most evident attempt to readapt the Jew to the soil and to manual labor.

Of importance not only to the Jewish world, but to the cultural world at large, is the development and growth of the Hebrew University in Jerusalem. Up to the present the various faculties of the university have been engaged only in research and postgraduate work. As a result of the recent meeting of the board of governors in London the university has now been authorized to introduce systematic degree instruction for undergraduates, and two faculties—one in arts and the second in science—have been sanctioned.

Thus far the theory has been that so long as no diplomas or degrees are conferred, the university has no right to charge tuition fees. It

has been dependent wholly upon endowments and yearly contributions, the largest part of which have come from the United States. Now there are committees of friends of the university in England, Germany, Poland, Rumania and Lithuania. A number of scholarships have been established and there is also a loan fund.

The student's organization is divided into a number of study groups trying to organize outside the university opportunity for study in the subjects that the university is not as yet able to provide.

With emphasis laid on the fact that the university is to be strictly non-sectarian in character, it is believed that this institution will fulfil the long-felt need of the hundreds of young men and women of the country for a center of learning ranking with the foremost universities of the western world.

THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS OF GREAT BRITAIN AND INDUSTRIAL TRAINING

According to a despatch from the London bureau of *The Christian Science Monitor,* the committee set up by the Minister for Education and the Minister of Labor to inquire into education in relation to trade reports that what trade and industry want from the elementary schools is general intelligence and adaptability, not specialized vocational training. The intellectual and moral characteristics which are required are those which would be produced by a sound general education, including an adequate amount of handicraft, and supplemented by physical training and organized games. They point out to the critics that it will be impossible to get the best results until the classes are reduced in size and until playing fields are more commonly provided.

The committee deprecates the introduction of more than a small proportion of special subjects into the school curriculum. On the commercial side, for instance, it declares, it would be deplorable if such mechanical subjects as shorthand and typewriting overshadowed the general education, which must remain the chief object of the school.

All the witnesses emphasized strongly the value of relating school instruction to the environment of the pupil. The treatment of such subjects as English, arithmetic, history and geography is steadily becoming more realistic in this sense. The extension of handicraft teaching, too, is warmly recommended.

The committee comments upon the suddenness of the plunge into employment for the ordinary child. To move at one step at the tender age of fourteen from the atmosphere of the school, with its comparatively easy hours and light discipline, to that of the factory, to move without an interval from the childish to adult surroundings, is to undergo a very disturbing experience. The committee approves of those firms who set up an "initiation school" for children to attend during the first few days of their employment in order to become generally familiar with the industry. Where such a course can not be adopted, the committee recommends visits to factories by school children under the supervision of a teacher and in close relation to the ordinary work of the school.

The committee thinks it likely that industry, including agriculture, would benefit by recruiting from the secondary schools. It recommends that the age entry into apprenticeship should be adjusted in order to allow of secondary-school children becoming apprentices after the termination of their school course at the age of sixteen.

The committee points out that there is an absence of effective contact between those responsible for the boys and girls as school pupils and those responsible for the same boys and girls as young workers. The first is due to ignorance on the part of employers of the school system; the second is a tendency, now disappearing, for teachers to forget their close relations with industry.

The committee recommends that the Board of Education establish a small special body representative of the views of employers, workers, local education authorities and teachers to undertake national negotiations between the various interests concerned—teachers, local authorities, federations of employers and trade unions.

THE SUMMER SCHOOL OF THE NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF MEXICO

The eighth summer school of the National University of Mexico was one of the best at-

tended sessions since the school was inaugurated in 1921. Students from three countries have taken courses this year—Mexico, the United States and Canada.

There were nearly 300 students from the United States, while Canada was represented by three students. About 90 per cent. of the American delegation were women, most of them school teachers. The largest contingent in the American delegation, which represents 39 states, came from California and Texas. These states furnished 81 students.

Sixty per cent. of the American students will receive credits in colleges and universities of the United States for their work at the summer school. During the eight years the school has been in existence, more than 2,000 teachers and students from American educational institutions have attended the classes.

The object of the school is to make available to professors of Spanish in other countries, particularly the United States, the most efficacious means of learning this language and practicing it. The tuition fee for the course is $30.

The courses in English at the school have been especially popular with all the students. Great interest has been shown in the lectures on general sociology in English by Dr. Edward Ross, of the University of Wisconsin, as have been the lectures on Aztec literature by Professor John H. Cernyn, of the faculty of the National University of Mexico and the course on Mexican folklore by Professor Fernando Ramirez de Aguilar.

EXCHANGE STUDENTS FROM SOUTH AFRICA

TWELVE South African educational and cultural leaders will visit the United States during the next year under the auspices of the Carnegie Corporation of New York. President F. P. Keppel has announced that they will study American public-school systems, technical and commercial schools, parks and museums, libraries, community welfare, hospitals, city management, rural poor relief and other features of American activity.

South African educators advertised publicly for applicants and chose the following: S. C. Butler, principal, Tsolo School of Agriculture, to study Negro agricultural education; R. J. W. Charlton, assistant superintendent, Johannesburg General Hospital, to study hospital organization; E. C. Chubb, curator of Durban Public Museums and Art Gallery, to study educational use of museums; W. H. Hemar, principal, Cape Technical College, Cape Town, to study technical education; L. Hotz, secretary, Union Advisory Council of Labor, Pretoria, to study labor and industrial problems; E. P. M. Long, assistant in the public service labor department, Pretoria, to study wage regulation; A. D. Luckhoff, secretary, Algemene Armesorg Committee, Dutch Reformed Church, to study rural poor relief work; J. M. Meiring, head master, Gray College School, to study the organization of secondary education; O. J. P. Oxley, professor of fine arts, Natal University, to study art education; O. H. Howe, teacher in the Girls' High School, St. James, to study vocational guidance for girls; S. H. Scaife, inspector, Cape Education Department, to study agricultural education; M. S. Walsh, member of Cape Town City Council, to study aspects of city management.

The visits of the South Africans are part of an exchange plan being put into effect by the Carnegie Corporation whereby American educators are to spend a period in Africa making studies for the corporation.

THE COMMUNITY RECREATION MOVEMENT

THE Bureau of Labor has made public a summary of community recreation activities in the United States in 1927, according to which the movement made substantial progress during 1927. Reports have been received from 815 cities throughout the country which maintain community recreation plans under trained leadership. The number of cities reporting recreation programs for the community had increased from 505 in 1922 to 815 in 1927, and the number of trained workers from approximately 11,000 to nearly 20,000. In addition to these paid workers, 203 cities reported that 7,025 trained volunteers assisted in carrying out the recreation programs. The number of cities employing workers throughout the year had increased from 215 in 1922 to 321 in 1927. Training classes for paid workers were maintained by 146 cities and for volunteer workers by 82 cities.

Separate play areas in charge of recreation leaders numbered 10,770, an increase of 647 over those reported in 1926. The faculties provided include 6,301 outdoor playgrounds, 2,156 indoor recreation centers and 349 community houses, part of these facilities being provided for colored residents. The out-of-door playgrounds had an average daily attendance of more than 1,400,000 persons, including both participants in the sports or games and spectators. The indoor recreation centers had an average daily attendance of nearly 300,000 and the community houses an average attendance of 46,000.

Other recreation facilities reported include 403 bathing beaches in 214 cities, 840 swimming pools in 364 cities, 227 streets closed for play in 31 cities, 263 golf courses in 180 cities, 231 summer camps in 82 cities, and 694 play areas which do not come under the foregoing classifications in 52 cities. In addition a large proportion of the cities report tennis courts, baseball fields and athletic fields.

The majority of the recreation programs are under the direction of municipal recreation commissions, departments or boards, and in a number of cities municipal and private departments are combined in the management of playgrounds and community centers. About 280 cities report that private organizations maintain part or all of the recreation facilities.

Of 658 cities reporting on the sources of support for community recreation, 394 were carried on by means of municipal funds, 97 by private funds and the remainder by a combination of municipal and private funds and appropriations from the county or state. The total expenditure for public recreation in 1927 as reported by these cities amounted to $32,191,763.

THE MILBANK MEMORIAL FUND

John H. Kingsbury, secretary of the Milbank Memorial Fund, has made public a report on the results of intensive work carried out in three health demonstration areas in the attempt to reduce to a minimum the sickness and death rate from preventable diseases. The three areas chosen were two square miles in the Bellevue-Yorkville section of New York City, in Syracuse and in rural Cattaraugus County. The work, for which an appropriation of $2,000,000 was made, was begun in New York in 1925 and in the up-state areas in 1923.

In the last five years deaths from non-pulmonary tuberculosis in Cattaraugus County have averaged one third of what they were during the preceding nine years. Three successive low death rates constitute an unparalleled record in that region, which formerly failed to show a downward trend even when tuberculosis mortality in the United States registration area and in New York State was on the decline.

The average death rate from this disease in Cattaraugus County was formerly 71.7 per 100,000 population. In 1923, the year the experiment began, it was 68.1. By 1925 it had dropped to 45.3. In 1925 it was 43.7, and in 1927 had dropped still further to 42.1.

During 1924, 1925 and 1926 the infant mortality rates were lower than in any of the previous eight years, the decline marking a definite departure from an upward trend which had been evident from 1916 to 1923. A study of the causes of death revealed that the three-year decline was due chiefly to the reduction in the number of deaths from preventable diseases.

More than one half of all the children under ten years in the rural schools of the county have been immunized against diphtheria. The Cattaraugus County Board of Health has established a maternity, infancy and child health service under direction of a trained specialist, who is cooperating with similar state and federal health services in attempting to utilize the methods employed by health departments of world-wide reputation to reduce maternal and infant mortality and to safeguard the health of the child not yet old enough to attend school.

The 1927 death rate from tuberculosis in Syracuse was the lowest the city has ever had. The rate of fifty-nine deaths to 100,000 population during the year represents a reduction of 60 per cent. from the rate of 146 in 1908. Syracuse has the lowest tuberculosis death rate on record among the large cities of the United States.

As a result of an intensive campaign there to protect children from measles, the mortality from this illness was 69 per cent. lower among children under three years of age during the 1926–27 epidemic than it was in the preceding

outbreak. It is pointed out in the Milbank Fund report that fully 70 per cent. of all deaths from measles occur within the first three years of life.

More than 20,000 Syracuse children, chiefly of school age, have been immunized from diphtheria within the last three years. Judging from the periodicity of the disease in the past, the report points out, another wave of diphtheria is about due.

The infant mortality rate in Syracuse has exhibited a continuous decline during the entire period of 1916–27. The maternal mortality rate, on the other hand, has shown an upward course for the last two years.

Last year was the first full twelve months of activity on the part of the health center at 325 East Thirty-eighth Street, which is now under development by the Bellevue-Yorkville health demonstration. It is estimated that 109,000 contacts were made during the year. The work in this region was started too recently to show results as positive as those found up-state.

A study made in this area showed that the third-grade school children have a higher average of physical defects than those of the city as a whole and that the medical and nursing staffs now available are inadequate for school medical inspection.

The death rate in this district was 16.74 in 1,000 in 1924, 18.62 in 1925 and 19.13 in 1926. Organic disease was the principal cause of death, followed by pneumonia, cancer and accidents.

The appropriations made by the Milbank Memorial Fund during 1927 bring the total of its contributions since incorporation to $5,388,007.32. Aside from the sum of $325,000 set aside for the New York health demonstrations, the fund made appropriations in 1927 amounting to $193,450, chiefly to agencies working in the field of public health.

THE CHICAGO SUPERINTENDENCY

THE correspondent of the *School Board Journal* writes as follows:

William J. Bogan is Chicago's new superintendent of schools. After the Chicago schools had completed one entire school year without an official head of the educational department, the school board on June 27 unanimously elected the man who was unofficial acting superintendent throughout that period. Mr. Bogan has been in the Chicago system for 35 years. Prior to his promotion to the position of assistant superintendent in 1924, he was principal of Lane Technical High School. The new superintendent is 58 years old and has four children. It is likely that the new leader will be very well received by the teachers and principals.

At the time of his election, Mr. H. Wallace Caldwell, the new president of the board of education, lauded Superintendent Bogan as follows: "In paying you this most perfect tribute, the board of education has given its vote of confidence and its complete trust in placing in your hands the educational welfare of Chicago school children. No political interference will be placed in your path. You are the chief."

Mr. Bogan responded, saying, "The honor conferred upon me today is as great as any one who believes in children could receive. The responsibility is great. It would be too great did I not know that I will share it with you."

Although 25 candidates were considered, the choice is said to have resulted from a recommendation of the Mayor's Advisory Committee and the personal regard of a majority of the board members for the man who successfully piloted by careful leadership the great Chicago public-school system without real authority.

It is interesting to note that the Public School Emergency Committee, which turned loose several scorching statements against the school board during the past year, has, through two of its most noted representatives, Rev. Charles W. Gilkey and Rabbi Louis Mann, expressed satisfaction at the selection of Mr. Bogan. They stated, "We congratulate Superintendent Bogan on the great opportunity that is his to give Chicago a school administration that will restore to the city and its public schools their rightful place in the esteem and confidence of the nation."

Confronted with so many piled-up problems awaiting settlement, the new superintendent decided to forego any vacation this summer. He has intimated that the junior-high-school program, which has been "under his wing" since its start four years ago, will be pushed. He held out the hope that as soon as the school board's finances can be strengthened, there will be an increase in salaries for the teaching force. Between now and September there are many important teaching and executive positions to be filled, chief among them the presidency of the Chicago Normal College.

THE GRADUATE LIBRARY SCHOOL OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO

The new graduate library school of the University of Chicago, which is an outgrowth of a movement on the part of the library profession for an institution devoted exclusively to research and graduate study, will open with the autumn quarter of the university on October 1, according to Dean George Alan Works.

J. C. M. Hanson, recently acting director of the University of Chicago libraries and now in charge of the recataloguing of the Vatican Library in Rome, will be professor of bibliography, classification and cataloguing in the new school; Harriet E. Howe will be associate professor of library science, and Douglas Waples, professor of educational method. Dr. Pierce Butler, of the Newberry Library, Chicago, will be a lecturer for the autumn quarter, and the special lecturers already engaged include J. Christian Bay, librarian of the John Crerar Library; Theodore W. Koch, librarian of Northwestern University; Carl H. Milam, secretary of the American Library Association; Carl B. Roden, librarian of the Chicago Public Library, and George B. Utley, librarian of the Newberry Library.

The kinds of positions for which the new library school will give preparation include those of administrators of public, college and university libraries, teachers for library schools and of library science in teachers' colleges, and librarians of special collections such as law, history, medicine, science, Americana and manuscripts. Chicago has many important library interests that will be invaluable to the school. The American Library Association has its headquarters in Chicago, which makes cooperation in certain types of studies readily possible, and the library science student will find unusual facilities for his work in the great libraries for which Chicago is famous—the Crerar, Newberry, Public, University of Chicago and Northwestern, and other notable collections like those of the Chicago Historical Society, the Chicago Law Institute and the Municipal Library.

THE EXPERIMENTAL SCHOOL OF THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

Additions to the teaching staff of the experimental college of the University of Wisconsin, under direction of Dr. Alexander Meiklejohn, will include nine men when the fall session opens. Coming of a second year class necessitates an increase of instructors or "advisers" to a total of about 20.

At the close in June of the regular session, 111 freshmen finished the first year of the new college. Total enrollment during the entire year was 119. Of the original group of students, 108 reserved rooms for the second year, according to Carl Bogholt, who is serving as secretary during the summer. Three of these have withdrawn, leaving 105 who are expected to be included in the second year class.

Rooms in the dormitories will accommodate 256 men. With 105 expected to return as sophomores, and 20 advisers, room for 131 freshmen is available. The exact figure may vary before the session opens.

Inquiries regarding admission to the college are now being received, says Mr. Bogholt, and a considerable number of freshmen have already definitely enrolled in the college. Prospective students are indicating their desire to enroll in applications for admission sent to the registrar of the university.

New members of the staff include Professor Carl Russell Fish, professor of American history at the university; Clarence E. Ayres, lecturer in philosophy, former student at Brown University, University of Chicago and Harvard University, and associate editor of *The New Republic;* Robert J. Havighurst, assistant professor of physics, graduate of Ohio Wesleyan and Ohio State University, formerly fellow with the Rockefeller Council of Research at Harvard, and recently assistant professor of chemistry at Miami University; Francis Steegmuller, instructor in English, formerly at Columbia University, author of "O Rare Ben Jonson," which he wrote under a pen name, and other books; Ralph M. Crowley, assistant in psychology, who received a master of arts degree at the University of Wisconsin; Paul M. Herzog, assistant in history, from Harvard University; Douglas Orr, Swarthmore College. Another addition to the staff is expected to be announced shortly.

Advisers already on the staff include Dr. Meiklejohn, former president of Amherst College; Walter R. Agard, professor of Greek civ-

ilization; John M. Gaus, professor of political science; Percy M. Dawson, associated professor of physiology; Samuel G. A. Rogers, associate professor of French; Laurance J. Saunders, associated professor of history; Paul A. Rausenbush, assistant professor of economics; Malcolm P. Sharp, assistant professor of law; Carl M. Bogholt, instructor in philosophy; John Powell, Jr., assistant in philosophy.

These advisers give most of their time to the experimental college, but each gives some instruction in regular classes of the university.

The freshman course of study will again be concerned this year with Athenian civilization. The subject for study in the sophomore year will be the life, thought and organization of modern America.

EDUCATIONAL NOTES AND NEWS

PROFESSOR ANDREW FLEMING WEST, dean and founder of the Graduate College of Princeton University, whose resignation was presented to the trustees in the spring, will pass over his administrative work to his successor, Professor Augustus Trowbridge, at the beginning of the college year.

DR. FRANK P. GRAVES, New York State commissioner of education, has returned to the United States from Belgium, where he attended the dedication of the library of Louvain University.

DR. JAMES EARL RUSSELL, dean emeritus of Teachers College, Columbia University, who returned on August 12 from a world tour, was on the same day the guest of honor at the annual men's steak dinner of Teachers College. Dr. Russell gave a brief account of the trip, which he took in the interest of the Carnegie Foundation. One thousand students of education attending the summer session of Teachers College were at the dinner.

BEFORE leaving California to take up his work as chancellor of the University of Denver, Dr. F. M. Hunter, since 1917 superintendent of schools at Oakland, was the guest of honor at a testimonial dinner given by five hundred colleagues and friends.

PROFESSOR W. A. BRATTON, for thirty-one years head of the department of mathematics in Whitman College, has been granted the degree of doctor of science by Williams College, his alma mater. Professor Bratton studied in Columbia University during the academic year just closed.

ROBERT E. BACON, assistant dean of Harvard College, has resigned to become dean of St. John's College, Annapolis, Maryland. Besides the deanship, he will be vice-president of the college and assistant professor of English.

DR. CHARLES HUGH NEILSON has been appointed associate dean at the St. Louis University School of Medicine, to fill the vacancy left by the death on July 11 of Dr. Don R. Joseph.

FRANK W. CLELLAND has been appointed assistant dean and will act as dean of the school of religious education of Boston University during the coming year. He was formerly secretary and registrar of the university's school of social service.

PROFESSOR WILLIAM D. TRAUTMANN, associate professor of German, has been appointed dean of Adelbert College, Western Reserve University.

DR. HERVIN U. ROOP, for the past five years head of the department of philosophy and education and director of the summer school of Wheaton College, has resigned to accept the position of dean of Lincoln Memorial University at Harrogate, Tennessee, and head of the department of philosophy and psychology. Dr. Roop was for a number of years president of Lebanon Valley College, Pennsylvania. Lincoln Memorial University is a non-sectarian, coeducational institution of a thousand students, an endowment of two million, and thirty buildings. The B. A. Duke Hall of Citizenship has just been dedicated.

THE REVEREND H. S. FICKE, of the Presbytery of Boston, has accepted the position of professor of English and head of the department at the University of Dubuque, Iowa, an institution set aside by the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church for the training of leaders in Americanization.

Dr. H. R. Laslett, professor of psychology in Whitman College, goes to the Oregon State College, Corvallis, in a similar capacity this autumn.

In the department of zoology of the University of Pittsburgh, the following changes in rank are in effect for the coming year: Robert T. Hance, from acting head to head of the department; P. W. Whiting, from assistant to associate professor; E. Alfred Wolf, from instructor to assistant professor; A. W. Kozelka, from instructor to assistant professor at the Erie Center of the University of Pittsburgh; E. P. Jones, from graduate assistant to instructor at the Uniontown Center of the university. New appointments to graduate assistantships include: Dorothy Binns, Carey H. Bostian, Donald Charles, George Dambach, Paul R. David, Eward McCrady, Jr., George E. Snyder and Ruth Thompson.

Additions have been made to the faculty of the department of French of the University of California at Los Angeles as follows: Professor Paul Bonnet, who for the past three years has been a lecturer in the University of Sydney, Australia. He was president of the Alliance Française in Sydney and took an active part in the cultural and civic life of the community. Dr. Maxwell Smith, of the University of Chattanooga, Tennessee, will occupy the post of lecturer in French. Jean Jontard, formerly a professor in the City College of New York, will also join the faculty in the fall; as also Miss Julia Broquet, who has been teaching French at Mills College, who has been appointed associate.

Esson M. Gale, for twenty years a resident of China and lately an administrative officer in the Chinese government, has returned to America to accept a position as lecturer in Oriental languages at the University of California.

Frederick Maurice Powicke, professor of medieval history in the University of Manchester, has been appointed regius professor of modern history in the University of Oxford in the room of the late Mr. H. W. C. Davis.

Ernest Camp, Jr., formerly state news editor of the southern divisional offices of the Associated Press, Atlanta, has been appointed an instructor in journalism in the Henry W. Grady school of journalism, University of Georgia.

J. E. Hansen, formerly superintendent of schools at Westby, Wis., has been appointed assistant chief of the bureau of visual education in the extension division of the University of Wisconsin.

Dr. M. G. Neale, of the school of education of the University of Missouri, who in June accepted the position of assistant commissioner of education of New York State, has reconsidered his decision and will remain at the University of Missouri. The assistant commissioner will be head of the finance division, a position created at the last session of the New York Legislature.

The school board of Indianapolis has appointed successors to three assistant superintendents, whose positions were abolished last October. The new assistants are Mr. F. T. Glidden, formerly assistant state superintendent; Mr. B. B. Williams, statistician of the state education department, and Mr. C. C. Underwood, formerly of the Crawfordsville schools.

We learn from *The School Board Journal* that William Dick, secretary of the board of education at Philadelphia, Pa., has retired with the completion of fifty years of service. Mr. Dick became connected with the school system of Philadelphia in June, 1875, with his appointment as clerk. In 1891 he was made paymaster, and in 1906 he became secretary of the board. Mr. Dick is a member of the National Association of School Business Officials and had served as president and secretary of the association.

Dr. C. W. Merriman has resigned as a member of the school board at Beloit, Wis., after a service of more than fifty years.

V. T. Harlow, late of Brasenose College, Oxford, and recently lecturer in history at University College, Southampton, has been appointed keeper of Rhodes House Library.

Dr. E. R. A. Seligman, McVicker professor of economics at Columbia University, has undertaken to make for John J. Raskob, national Democratic chairman, a complete study of the farm relief problem.

TWO British students are to make world tours as the result of awards made by Arthur Jenkins and Mrs. Barbara Wootton, representing the British Labor Party, and E. R. Palmer and Miss Bradley, of the cooperative movement. These awards are the first under a scheme endowed by Sir Arthur Dyke Acland for providing deserving scholars with means to travel. They go to Paul Winterton, of Warlingham, Surrey, who proposes to study the conditions of the peasants in southern Russia, with special reference to agricultural and industrial cooperation; and to May Louisa Dhonau, of New Cross, London, who will investigate German and Austrian local government with special reference to recent developments in rating and municipal enterprises.

SAMUEL J. BECK and Carl H. Rogers, fellows in psychology of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, under grant of the Commonwealth Fund, and in training at the Institute for Child Guidance in New York City during the past year, completed their fellowships on June 1. Mr. Beck has been appointed psychologist to the Jewish Board of Guardians, committee on field activities, in New York City. Mr. Rogers has taken a position as psychologist in the department of child study of the Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children, in Rochester, N. Y.

DR. IRA S. WILE, of New York, has been invited to give a series of five lectures on "The Problem Child" from July 2 to July 6, 1929, under the auspices of the Tavistock Square Clinic for Functional Diseases in London.

SIR JAMES IRVING, of St. Andrew's University, Scotland, gave an address recently before the English-speaking Union at Chicago, on the desirability of establishing fellowships for American students in universities other than Oxford and Cambridge. He believes that "such students will return to America with a fairer view of Britain and a better understanding of the British people than is possible by the restricted method of sending men to Oxford only."

NATHAN LAMPORT, president of the Yeshiva College of America, a Jewish institution now being built in New York City, died on August 14 at the age of seventy-four years.

I. F. HALL, for twenty-five years superintendent of schools at North Adams and more than sixty years engaged in educational work in Massachusetts, died on May 27 at the age of eighty-one years.

EDWIN SMITH RICHARDS, a retired school principal, who served the public schools of New Jersey for fifty years, died on August 11 at the age of seventy-two years.

JESSIE CLAIRE MCDONALD, for fifteen years principal of the National Cathedral School for Girls, died on August 12 at the age of fifty-nine years.

VISCOUNT HALDANE, of Cloan, British Secretary of War from 1905 to 1912 and twice Lord Chancellor—once as a liberal and once as a laborite—died at his home in Perthshire, Scotland, on August 18. Lord Haldane, like Lord Balfour, was the author of works on philosophy, science and education. His books include in addition to a biography of Adam Smith, "Education and Empire," "The Pathway to Reality," "The Reign of Relativity," "The Philosophy of Humanism" and "Human Experience." During the war Lord Haldane was accused of sympathy with Germany and was obliged to retire from political activity. Again like Lord Balfour, Lord Haldane was a member of a distinguished family. His mother, a woman of great intellect, died three years ago, a few weeks after she had celebrated her 100th birthday. His sister, Elizabeth Sanderson Haldane, LL.D., is known for her civic and literary work. His brother, John Scott Haldane, has been director of the mining research laboratory of Birmingham University. Another brother, Sir William Stowell Haldane, is a leader in the law. His nephew, J. B. S. Haldane, is a well-known biological chemist and author.

SIR GEORGE OTTO TREVELYAN, like Lord Haldane a distinguished statesman, author and historian, died on August 16, aged ninety years, at his home in Northumberland, England. He was the last survivor but one, namely, Lord Rosebery, of all those who sat in the cabinet with Gladstone.

PROVIDING for the erection and equipment of a new Hall of Philosophy, the University of

Southern California has received a gift of $265,000 in memory of the late Colonel Seeley W. Mudd, former mining engineer and leading citizen of Los Angeles. The new Seeley Mudd memorial building will house the philosophy offices, classrooms, the enlarged library of philosophy, and periodical reading rooms, as well as special rooms for the use of research fellows and graduate students. $240,000 will be expended in the erection of the building and $25,000 will be used for its furnishings and equipment.

A GYMNASIUM for the elementary and high schools of the University of Chicago has been made possible through the gift, amounting to $400,000, of Mr. B. E. Sunny, chairman of the board of the Illinois Bell Telephone Company.

THE national endowment fund of the American Historical Association now amounts to $300,000, according to a report by Professor Harry J. Carman, of Columbia University, executive secretary of the fund committee. The goal for the fund is $1,000,000. Despite its losses from floods, Vermont has subscribed $6,305, or more than twice its quota, Professor Carman said. Indiana also has exceeded its quota with subscriptions totaling $8,530. Other subscriptions are as follows: Connecticut, $6,419; the District of Columbia, $3,426.28; Illinois, $5,602.82; Maine, $1,035; Maryland, $3,336.36; Massachusetts, $8,977; Michigan, $3,195; Minnesota, $2,821; New Jersey, $1,365; New York, $45,170; Ohio, $2,756.42; Pennsylvania, $27,919.25; Rhode Island, $2,125.

DR. CHARLES H. ELLIOTT, commissioner of education of New Jersey, has ruled that Benton F. Allen has not qualified for protection under the tenure act. Accordingly, his appeal from a notice terminating his services at the end of June was dismissed. Dr. Elliott ruled that the services of a teacher must be continued beyond three calendar years to gain tenure protection. He pointed out that Allen, except in the first instance, had been employed for the school year and that the initial contract had been dated back to July 1, 1925, whereas it was actually executed on August 3.

THE executive board of Brookwood Labor College at Katonah, N. Y., has sent a message to William Green, president of the American Federation of Labor, asking that it be allowed to reply to charges that the college teaches communistic doctrines. The charges were made by speakers at the quarterly meeting of the federation's executive council, just held at Atlantic City. Referring to the council's announcement that branches of the federation and its affiliations would be asked to discontinue all forms of support to the college, including supplying of scholarships, the board requested Mr. Green not to notify the international unions until it had had an opportunity to present its case.

THE Northern Library Congress, which recently took place in Stockholm in the Commercial High School, included delegates from Norway, Finland and Denmark, numbering 250, besides a large number of representatives from Sweden.

ENGLISH has been made the principal foreign language to be taught in Estonian public schools, according to the latest instructions from the Ministry of Education. English will thus take the place of German, which was intensively taught heretofore.

A BUREAU to supervise the physical and mental development of children during their school life was created recently by a decree of the Minister of Public Instruction of Chile. A division of education will provide courses in school hygiene for teachers and for the general public and training courses for nurses and home visitors. A division of school hygiene will be in charge of medical inspection of school children and will also make studies of their physical and mental development. Free dental and medical treatment will be provided for children whose parents are unable to pay. Laboratories, clinics and other facilities for carrying on the work of the institute will be maintained by the public authorities.

IT is proposed to establish a federation of Balkan universities under the title of the University Union of Southeastern Europe, comprising the Universities of Bucharest, Prague, Belgrade, Zagreb, Sofia, Athens and Constantinople. "The union," the idea of which is credited to the Bucharest faculty, will center in Bel-

grade, and proposes to provide a clearing house for scientific and medical discoveries, especially those which will ameliorate public health, prosperity, social and economic conditions. An interchange of professors and students among union members is a chief feature, and a monthly publication in French is also proposed. The annual meetings will be held in the various Balkan capitals. Turkey will send the president of Stamboul University and three professors to the preliminary conference at Bucharest.

AFTER gradually dropping more and more in arrears, so that it finally owed its whole teaching staff twenty-six months' salary, the Peking National University has made a "new beginning" by formally repudiating these old debts, and starting all over again, with promises of regular full salary payments in the future. This repudiation, which with most of the teachers averages well above $4,000 each, has created serious individual problems. Many of the teachers had been virtually existing on long-time credit, and others had borrowed money from friends and from banks. Now these teachers must personally shoulder these debts or go through bankruptcy proceedings. The salary repudiation has been received with great bitterness by all of the staff, and many able professors have refused to continue teaching and have sought other situations.

THE U. S. Children's Bureau reports that, under a decree recently promulgated, school attendance in Chile is made compulsory for all children during the years between the ages of seven and fifteen. Under the previous law school attendance was required for four years only. The decree directs that the schools be equipped as far as possible with playgrounds, gymnasiums, baths and libraries, as well as with school gardens, workshops and other facilities for manual training. Provision is also made for institutional schools of the cottage type for dependent and handicapped children and for traveling schools which will go from place to place in rural districts having no permanent schools. The employment of children of school age in factories, workshops and other establishments when school is in session is prohibited, and the administrative authorities of the provinces are ordered to inspect establishments employing young persons and report violations of the law. Penalties are provided for failure of parents to send their children to school and for the employment of children in violation of the provisions of the decree.

ELEMENTARY schools in Cardiganshire, Wales, will hereafter be taught only the Welsh language, according to the U. S. Bureau of Education. The last English-speaking teacher serving in an elementary school in the county has resigned, and hereafter no teacher will be appointed who can not teach in Welsh. This is the outcome of a popular movement in Wales, fostered by the Federation of Welsh Education committees and other organizations, for the teaching of Welsh in the schools of Wales by Welsh teachers. Welsh has become the language of instruction in most infant schools of Carnarvonshire, and its use in senior departments of elementary schools is increasing. In Glamorganshire, a rule was passed in 1923 that in five years only teachers qualified to teach Welsh should be employed in the elementary schools of the county. Vacation courses and special classes, in the meantime, were organized throughout the county, and it is now proposed to enforce the requirement, beginning on January 1, 1929. Notwithstanding the cooperation of Welsh training colleges, local school authorities have difficulty in obtaining competent teachers able to teach Welsh and to give instruction in that language.

THE claim of the secondary teachers of the Irish Free State to pensions was urged at the General Synod of the Church of Ireland by the headmaster of Mountjoy School, Dublin, who proposed a resolution in which the synod expressed regret at the government's delay in legislating, and asked for the introduction of a pension bill before the end of the present year. Mr. Anderson gave the minister for education credit for having at heart the interests of the teachers, but he emphasized the inconsistency of stopping short of providing them with pensions. Secondary teachers in the Free State, he said, were civil servants in everything but name, and they were the only body of the kind in the British Isles who were without pensions.

The pension question had been shelved during the last three years, but the government had recently given orders for the preparation of a bill. Mr. Anderson wishes the government to realize that the need for a bill is urgent.

DISCUSSION

WHAT IS EDUCATION?

Ask that question and always the answer will be: "It is what one gets from school"; or, expanding that statement, "It is that which a person gains in schools, colleges, universities, lectures and the like, through reading, studying, listening, taking notes and being examined, all in close submission to teachers and text-books." That is to say, the word education is almost universally limited in its meaning to the effect of a "course," a teacher, a text-book and an examination. We are so fixed in the habit of thinking of education in the style above suggested that, even when we say a man is "self-educated," we have in mind the thought that he has pursued a "course" of reading and study laid down by an expert.

The fact is that a very small part of the whole mass of knowledge, experience, skill and wisdom that an adult possesses has come to him through "education," as it is almost universally defined.

A grown man's knowledge, skill and wisdom depend more upon the gifts that were his at the moment of his birth than upon any influences that affected him thereafter. "As a man is born, so is he," is still true, in spite of the strange dreams and claims of behaviorists to the contrary.

And, after the influence of one's own inborn qualities, next in importance comes, not the influence of "education" as defined above, but the influence of environment. By environment is here meant, of course, all that affects a person from the moment of birth. "Education" is part of this environment, but a small part only. The inbred and now most persistent habit of thinking that formal education, by school, teacher, course of study and text-book, is all of the education training that the average individual enjoys in his earlier years, has turned the discussion of "Adult Education," which is now so fashionable and persistent, away from all rational studies that might lead to conclusions of value. Nearly all of that discussion is concerned with ways and means for supplying to young people a little addendum to that special, occasional and usually distasteful training, driving, boosting and guiding which formed the education of the school.

So strong is the hold on us of the commonly accepted theory that "education," as above defined, can be and should be the most potent influence in making men intelligent, thoughtful, interested and wise, that we are continually charging our schools and colleges with gross stupidity of management because so few "educated" persons display any evidences of having received the wisdom and other good qualities which the current superstition says they should have acquired in school.

For example: a writer in a recent *Atlantic Monthly* says, "the intellectual mediocrity of our people today, *mostly due to this defective system of higher education . . .!*"

It is more than probable that not one person in a hundred of those who may read those words would think for a moment of objecting to them. If an occasional reader does object it will be because he thinks our system is not quite as defective as the writer assumes, and does not leave its students in a state of intellectual mediocrity, and not because he sees that to lay the mental inferiority of most of us to defects in our higher education, is to assume that birth, and all environmental doings outside of "higher education" are of no importance as factors in creating wise men! Yet what could be more stupid than to ascribe the mediocrity of the people of this country to a defective system of higher education. No mediocre people ever lifted themselves out of mediocrity by setting up good schools. Good schools are fundamentally results and not causes!

Few will deny that parentage, home surroundings, play, companions, influence of adults and a thousand other items that go into the life of any boy or girl in the first 18 years, are of tremendous influence in fashioning the creature who, at 18, enters a "system of higher education." Few in fact will deny that the 18-year old was largely fashioned at the moment of birth. Most of us will, after a moment's

thought, come to the opinion that we are, in these days, a little education-mad; are intoxicated with the notion that a few hours in school are making the next generation just precisely what the schools intend them to be. Even those who are education-mad, or pedagogically intoxicated, should look for a moment at certain facts of life.

In the time between the moment of birth and his eighteenth year, a boy of average health has had, at the rate of 16 per day, over 105,000 waking hours. During those hours he has had countless thousands of experiences, has made countless thousands of observations, has asked thousands of questions and been answered, and has obeyed and disobeyed, has touched life in endless ways and has learned, learned, learned. He has had endless lessons in manual training, in games and plays. He has been subject to that instruction in manners and morals which goes perforce with companionship.

But it is idle to try even to suggest the items of learning that have been driven into him in his thousands of waking hours.

Of all this learning, a little has come by way of that "education" which we now so venerate. For consider, the average child is subject to the educational machine, during all these 105,000 hours of waking life, for a scant 8,000 hours only—one hour in thirteen. And, for many reasons, the training and the discipline of those hours have been far less effective than they are generally assumed to be. The boy often finds school distasteful. He learns his lesson because he must, whereas he meets with great zest and pleasure much of the training of his environment, from the time he explores his own periphery in the cradle, until he develops the use of hand and eye on the ball field. During many school hours he is subject to the will of a teacher who is by nature, study and experience poorly equipped for her work. This discipline of life, out of school, goes steadily on for twelve times as many hours as does that of school. The school hours are not in one continuous series. They are interrupted by every Saturday and Sunday, by many holidays and by prolonged vacations. The due progress of training and of the acquisition of helpful habits by school is broken on every Friday, to be resumed with difficulty on every Monday; and is still more broken at every term's end and laboriously patched again at the opening of each term.

While this is not a plea for a more rational time arrangement of our schools and colleges, it may be proper here to note that the Saturday holiday and the long and frequent vacations, which were adopted by our schools several generations ago largely for economic reasons that had nothing to do with education, are needless and absurd obstacles to the effective working of our schools. But that is in parenthesis.

The delusion that education is a rather remote and esoteric yet most desirable thing, to be gained only through the ministrations of teacher or lecturer and "course" and book, is in no part of the skill-and-wisdom-gaining field more harmful than it has proved to be in the department of adult education. Nearly every discussion of this movement, and well-nigh every organized effort to promote it, begins with the assumption that adults who wish to learn must all be taught; must form classes; must adopt courses; must acquire text-books, and must be examined and must aim for degrees, or diplomas or certificates. And, unfortunately, this obsession that learning-something must always mean being-taught-something, has so possessed us all, that the adult-who-wants-to-learn almost instinctively feels that, to fulfil his desire, he must begin by becoming one who wishes-to-be-taught.

As long as this notion persists—and of course all formal-education people will help it to persist and to grow stronger—adults wishing to learn will look about for some approved method of being educated! But, thanks to Mr. Gutenberg and others, our new world is crowded with print, in words, pictures, diagrams and charts; this print lies ready to the hand of all inquiring minds; inquiring minds increase in number as modern industry each day more fully and plainly declares that better wages await the better-informed; and every day we see grow larger a vast army of students who—masterless, classless, without study-courses and not asking for diplomas—begin with the daily paper, graduate to the trade organ, promote themselves to the technical journal, then advance to the standard treatise, and in due course become educated adults.

But if, one may ask, in spite of a wide-spread delusion as to the part that formal education plays in the process of learning, countless thousands are learning without the pale of formal education, why complain?

Well, perhaps I am moved in good part to give forth this protest by the effort my library colleagues are making to take the teacher's part in "education." In effect, we are urged to set up in our libraries Departments of Adult Education! I am convinced this effort is unwise because of the teaching form of education the country already has a fair sufficiency and a sure continuous growth; institutions whose business it is to gather print and make it ready for use have already in hand all the work they can do, and do well; and to enter the field of the school and the teacher as other than a handmaid thereto is a needless and unwise diversion of energy.

J. C. Dana

November, 1927

CAN SUPERIOR MEN BE SECURED FOR ELEMENTARY TEACHING?

A considerable number of colleges and universities have recently announced that in the future unusual emphasis will be given to the instruction of the first two years. One of the chief proposals of these programs is the selection and retention of superior men for the instruction of freshmen and sophomores. It can hardly be doubted that no program for the improvement of undergraduate teaching is likely to go very far unless the men in contact with these students are of high quality. In fact, the success or failure of these ambitious programs will probably rest upon the quality of the men who will carry them out. If undergraduate instruction remains the province of second-rate men no change in the mechanics of courses or the addition of "Freshmen Weeks" or courses in "How to Study" is likely to have more than a superficial effect. If, however, colleges find it possible to turn their beginning students over to strictly first-class men the remaining problems of first- and second-year teaching will shrink very greatly since the majority of these classroom problems arise from the fact that, in the larger universities at least, the larger part of this teaching is done either by students whose major interest is in an advanced degree or by disillusioned older men who have failed to get something better.

It is difficult to persuade really excellent men to devote any considerable part of their time to undergraduate teaching. It is almost impossible to find a really good man who will devote the larger part of his time to classroom work with freshmen and sophomores. It will pay administrators who are interested in such men for this service to consider the reasons why men of ability find it unattractive. It is not likely that any considerable number of superior men will be drawn into undergraduate work until these reasons are fully recognized and adequately met.

There are many reasons why the superior man finds undergraduate instruction unattractive. The chief of these are the absence of prestige in elementary teaching, the fact that the work of the elementary classroom does not contribute to the advancement of professional research, the long hours in the classroom, the inordinate time that the conscientious teacher gives to personal conferences with students and the fact that however much administrators may pay lip-service to teaching, academic rewards are likely to go to the fertile publisher rather than to the less spectacular pedagogue.

The absence of prestige in elementary teaching is a fact so obvious as to require no elaborate demonstration. There are few men devoting themselves largely to undergraduate instruction who are not apologetic about their assignment, particularly if they are members of a department in which many courses are offered for upperclassmen and graduates. The low esteem in which elementary teaching is held is due, in part at least, to the fact that the majority of men do it for want of something better. For a man in a large department to devote himself year after year to teaching freshmen is ordinarily an admission that he is incapable of getting something better. Just as free, unskilled labor is degraded by slavery, so all elementary teaching is degraded by the fact that elementary teaching is, in large departments at least, a pretty good indication either of immaturity or of professional failure. A position from which the successful man escapes to something better is never held in high es-

teem and elementary teaching is no exception. It is interesting to secure the lofty explanations of men who through choice or necessity add an occasional elementary section to their other more pretentious duties. "I like to keep up some contact with undergraduates." "I fill in with an elementary section." "I believe that it is my duty to give freshmen some contact with a graduate-school man." Prestige plays an inordinate part in the academic world since it is one of the few inexpensive luxuries of the teacher. Unfortunately elementary teaching pays no dividends in this pitiable commodity.

A number of other unattractive conditions of elementary teaching are so bound up together that it is unprofitable to consider them separately. These are the absence of topical relation between elementary teaching and professional research, the inability of elementary students to cooperate with research and the consequent reduction in research and resulting publication. These conditions constitute a serious drawback to the elementary teacher. Material for elementary instruction is organized under the influence of educational aims and this organization contributes little or nothing to research organization. Elementary teaching requires one pattern of organization, research quite another. The question might even be raised whether the man who throws himself heart and soul into teaching is not thereby reducing his research effectiveness.

Certainly the shift in pattern is not an easy one to make. The organization of material for graduates is, however, a research organization. From this organization comes naturally the sort of "productive scholarship" that gets one's name on the author's line. Furthermore, the upperclassman or graduate is a potent research assistant. He is invaluable in a variety of ways. His cooperative value is so great that a considerable amount of publication by recognized scientists is "with so and so" or at least carries the student's name in a grateful footnote. This is particularly true of research requiring great drudgery. The elementary teacher has none of these facilitations. The result is that, being entirely on his own, investigation on a large scale is difficult and his scanty bibliography wins him little honor.

Of itself this condition need not be serious. The man who has a sincere interest in scholarly investigations will find his satisfaction in the amount of time that he can devote to that activity. The fact that the mass of work to which he can append his name is less than it would be under more favorable conditions need bring him no concern. But there is one cause for concern here. Recognition among one's colleagues, the notice of administrators, the consequent proffers of other positions with the opportunity for betterment either through acceptance or barter, rest in no small part upon the amount of publication rather than the time devoted to research. The perfect flower that blooms unseen will never be transplanted to a richer garden. Herein lies a profound disadvantage for the elementary teacher. He may find in his investigations complete satisfaction for his own nature even if he is forced to do much hack work that would ordinarily be turned over to an advanced student, but he will not ordinarily be able to do the prolific publishing that is the surest road to fortune.

It is held, in theory, that such is not the case. It has been frequently stated in the past two years that successful elementary teaching will be rewarded and that the research difficulties of the undergraduate teacher will be taken into consideration. Time alone will show whether or not this is true. In the meantime the fact remains that the weightiest argument for advancement (in some institutions almost the only one) lies in offers from other institutions. The fact also remains that before good teaching can be rewarded it will be necessary for colleges to discover what good teaching is and who is doing it. At present, since few colleges have any reliable information as to the sort of teaching being done the tendency is to rationalize this ignorance by weighting heavily the "objective" evidences of activity. That is to say, publication. A certain amount of shrewdness characterizes the superior man. Just at present he seems to be doubtful as to the future of the college teacher who depends for his advancement upon such possibilities.

Certain other unattractive concomitants of undergraduate teaching must be summarized without discussion. Teaching schedules for

elementary instructors are ordinarily longer than for advanced classes. In many institutions they are nearly as long as for high-school teachers. The time spent in preparation for a really good elementary lecture, demonstration or class discussion, may be very great. Yet there is no spectacular or tangible result of this expenditure of time. If one is even moderately clever no time need be spent in preparation without either class or administration being the wiser. To make virtue forever its own reward is to expect too much of human nature. The endless conferences with students demanded of the elementary teacher raise the same problem of unrewarded energy. Finally, one serious objection of superior men to elementary teaching must be noted. In our larger departments with a huge staff, the content of the elementary course is rapidly being rigidly organized through syllabi, outlines, group conferences, assigned readings and the like. There are many departments in which the topics to be discussed are set forth in detail and the time allotment for each is specified. Any member of the staff who deviates from this program is subject to discipline. One mark of the superior man is likely to be an unwillingness to be regimented. Even as a young instructor he is likely to find the retailing of the cut-and-dried course of some one else irksome. As an older man he is likely to demand the fullest freedom to conduct his courses in his own way. If he does not insist upon this freedom he is either indifferent about his teaching or is not really a superior man after all.

The administrative procedures necessary to remove the objectionable features that keep the better sort of men out of elementary teaching seem fairly obvious. The problem is, first, to see clearly why it is hard to build up a permanent staff of first rate men for undergraduate courses, second, to decide whether, in view of the absence of the more passive virtues such men are really wanted after all, and lastly, if they really are wanted, to provide conditions that will attract them.

Wm. R. Wilson

Ohio State University,
Columbus, Ohio

QUOTATIONS

RESEARCH IN THE LAW

Establishment by the Johns Hopkins University of an institute for the study of the law is in keeping with modern thought in regard to the legal profession. This will not be a school to train men to practice law. It will devote itself to research. Under supervision of men of high scholarship it will study scientifically the economic and social effects of law; the clarification and simplification of law; the training of jurists and codifiers, and the guidance of writers of text-books and thinkers upon the human effects of law.

The standing of the Johns Hopkins and the character of the men selected for the faculty are guaranties that the proposed work will be carried on with high skill. Men of prestige in the legal profession and noted educators have indorsed the plan. The cost of operation has been underwritten for three years and there is assurance of financial backing for five years. When these have passed, it is hoped a permanent endowment can be obtained. No students will be enrolled for the first academic year, although properly qualified persons who desire to assist in research may apply for the privilege of so doing.

The public in the United States is dissatisfied with the administration of criminal law and is by no means satisfied with that of civil law. The nation is struggling under an antiquated system of criminal jurisprudence ill adapted to the needs of modern urban civilization. The cry of the hour is for law reform such as that which England has long since put into effect.

As yet there is no agreement either as to what changes are needed or how they can be put into effect. Lawyers and judges have written notably on the subject and considerable research has already been done. But a vast amount of this kind of work remains. Johns Hopkins can help importantly.—*The New York Evening Sun.*

MULTIPLE APPLICATIONS FOR ADMISSION TO MEDICAL SCHOOLS

Reports that great numbers of students are being turned away from medical schools, while true in a sense, greatly exaggerate the situation.

An investigation, two years ago, showed that 8,500 individual students made in all 20,093 applications, or an average of about 2½ applications per student. In a second report showing the applications for the last session, 11,282 individual applicants made 23,590 applications at about the same average as the year before. In the fall of 1926, 6,420 applications were accepted but of these there were only 5,020 actual enrolments, indicating that 1,400 students had been accepted in two or more schools. Thus, at the beginning of the session in the fall of 1926, vacancies still existed to the extent of one fourth of the entire enrolment. Fortunately, some of the schools had waiting lists whereby many of these vacancies were filled. Authentic reports show that, in the fall of 1926, 6,009 students were admitted to the first-year class. Of the 6,397 applications rejected in the fall of 1926, 2,622 individuals were rejected because of unsatisfactory qualifications. Of these, according to later investigations, 1,340 reapplied in the fall of 1927 and 750 were accepted, many of whom had secured additional preliminary qualifications. It is interesting to note that of the 750 whose credentials were reinvestigated on the second trial in 1927 and were accepted, only thirty-two had applied in 1926 to as many as from five to eleven different schools, while forty-three others who had applied in 1926 to five or more colleges and whose qualifications were reexamined in 1927 were again refused. In brief, the sifting processes during these two years resulted in the admission of the better element and the rejection of students less well qualified. The statistics published indicate that as the numbers of properly qualified students seeking admission to medical schools increase, the medical schools are also gradually adding to their teaching staffs, equipment or clinical facilities whereby larger numbers of students are being enrolled.

REPORTS

THE UNIVERSITIES AND TRAINING COLLEGES OF GREAT BRITAIN

THE report has recently appeared of the British Committee on Universities and Training Colleges. This committee was appointed by the conference which the president of the Board of Education called in February, 1926, which consisted of representatives of universities and university colleges, training colleges, local education authorities and other bodies interested in the training of teachers. The conference resulted in the appointment of the committee "to consider in what way cooperation between the universities and training colleges can be best effected." The committee consisted of eighteen members, the Universities of Oxford, Cambridge, London and Wales have each a member; the combined English universities have two members; the local education authorities four; the governing bodies of voluntary training colleges two, and the training college associations and teachers six members. The chairman is Mr. R. J. G. Mayor, formerly the principal assistant secretary in the universities and training of teachers branch of the Board of Education, and his colleagues are all experts.

The following are the recommendations made by the committee:

(1) That the schemes for the establishment of joint examining boards for the various areas which have been provisionally approved by the board continue in operation for a period not exceeding five years from September, 1928, in any case.

(2) That copies of all such schemes be communicated by the Board to the bodies represented on the conference for their consideration.

(3) That any representations made by these bodies with regard to the schemes provisionally approved be considered before final approval is given to the schemes which are to come into effect at the end of the period of provisional approval.

(4) That the board appoint a Central Advisory Committee for the Certification of Teachers, which shall be representative of the various bodies and interests chiefly concerned in the training and recognition of teachers, and that it be the duty of this committee to maintain a general survey over the examinations instituted under Circular 1372 and to advise the board upon questions arising thereon.

(5) That, with a view to ensuring the maintenance of a proper continuity of standard during the

early years of the working of the new examination system, the board and the new examining bodies cooperate in making such arrangements as will enable representatives of the Board to give active assistance to the new examining bodies, as well as to the Central Advisory Committee, of which the establishment is recommended under (4) above.

(6) That it is desirable that the training colleges and the new examining bodies, in putting forward proposals for schemes of study and syllabuses, should for the present make no abrupt departure from the general scope and standard of the existing arrangements.

(7) (*a*) That the board's inspectors continue, in concert with the training college authorities, to test the proficiency of students in the practice of teaching and in physical training, and that the marks assigned by them to the students for these subjects be communicated to the new examining bodies for inclusion in the general results of the examinations.

(*b*) That the board's inspectors should similarly continue for the present to test the proficiency of students in advanced handwork for men students, and also, where desired by the new examining bodies, in practical work in domestic subjects.

(8) That the new examining bodies should endeavor, as soon as may be conveniently practicable in each case, to make provision in their own examinations for the other subjects which are at present tested practically by the board's inspectors—namely, science, music, drawing, needlework, and handwork (other than advanced handwork for men students).

(9) That the new examining bodies should for the present continue the Board's practice of granting two chances of reexamination to students who fail at their first examination, and that they should afford facilities in 1930 and 1931 for the reexamination of students who fail at the last examinations conducted by the board, on the understanding that the cost of the reexamination of the latter students shall not fall either on the examining bodies or on the students themselves.

(10) That the board be requested to raise the overriding maximum for their proposed grant from 30s. to £2 for each student examined.

EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH AND STATISTICS

LONGEVITY OF EMINENT EDUCATORS

In a study of the longevity of eminent individuals covering different occupations and periods of history, the writer had occasion to use the biographical information found in Monroe's "Cyclopedia of Education." The data thus obtained seemed to have sufficient intrinsic worth to be of special interest to educators and scientific students. This is considered especially true of two tables which are submitted here with the necessary explanation and comment.

Monroe's "Cyclopedia of Education," published in 1911, is so familiar to educators of the United States that any comment on that score seems unnecessary. Its readiness of access to all students of education makes it rather easy to one so inclined, if interest and time are sufficient, to verify the truth of the data and thought here set forth.

For the purposes of the study it is necessary to have at hand the dates of birth and death of every individual considered. Failure to obtain such knowledge frequently leaves out of account many eminent persons. In the "Cyclopedia of Education" there are brief biographical sketches of one thousand one hundred and seventy-two educators available for the present study, forty-one women and one thousand one hundred and thirty-one men. The biographies of no individuals living at the time of publications were inserted, thus adding to the reliability of the data in reference to the true average life-span of the class or group of persons concerned.

In the writer's more extended study of longevity, the effect of education and occupation on lengthening life have been under consideration; but here, only such facts as seem clearly involved in the two tables, selected from others, of that branch of the larger study pertaining to a certain designated group of educators will be considered. The data have been classified with reference to nationality or country of activity, period of activity, age at death, average life span, and the rank according to the highest average length of life by countries and periods.

The countries included and specially named are the United States with 518 persons; England with 229; France with 84; Germany with 167; Italy with 50; Greece with 38; Scotland with 30; Switzerland with 23; "all others" (including Spain with 9, average age at death 62; Ireland with 6, average age at death 69.5) with

TABLE I

LIFE-SPAN OF EMINENT EDUCATORS OF DIFFERENT COUNTRIES AND PERIODS OF ACTIVITY

Nation	B. C.			1 to 1000 A. D.			1000 to 1600			1600 to 1800			
	Number	Sum of ages	Average	Number	Sum of ages	Average	Number	Sum of ages	Average	Number	Sum of ages	Average	Rank by nations
Greece	17	1241	73.00	17	1179	69.35	3	231	77.00	—	—	—	1
Italy	5	320	64.00	14	955	68.21	26	1733	66.65	4	273	68.25	6
Scotland	—	—	—	—	—	—	6	408	68.00	18	1299	72.16	2
Switzerland	—	—	—	—	—	—	7	423	60.43	15	1002	66.80	9
Other nations	2	144	72.00	6	365	60.83	8	500	62.50	13	903	69.46	7
France	—	—	—	3	213	71.00	25	1591	63.64	46	3278	68.23	5
Germany	—	—	—	5	334	66.80	39	2470	63.33	87	5953	68.42	8
England	—	—	—	8	544	68.00	67	4352	64.95	98	6594	67.28	4
United States	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	80		202	14126	69.93	3
Totals	24	1705	71.04	53	3590	67.73	182	11788	64.77	483	33428	69.21	
Period rank			1			4			5			2	

Nation	After 1800			Women			Men			Totals			
	Number	Sum of ages	Average	Number	Sum of ages	Average	Number	Sum of ages	Average	Number	Sum of ages	Average	Rank by nations
Greece	1	69	—	—	—	—	38	2720	71.58	38	2720	71.58	1
Italy	1	76	—	1	51	—	49	3306	67.26	50	3357	67.14	6
Scotland	6	418	69.66	—	—	—	30	2125	70.83	30	2125	70.83	2
Switzerland	1	66	—	—	—	—	23	1491	64.83	23	1491	64.83	9
Other nations	4	276	69.00				33	2188	66.30	33	2188	66.30	7
France	10	650	65.00	6	394	65.66	78	5338	68.43	84	5732	68.23	5
Germany	36	2313	64.25	3	214	71.33	164	10856	66.20	167	11070	66.28	8
England	56	4145	74.00	13	918	70.61	216	14717	68.13	229	15635	68.27	4
United States	315	21616	68.62	18	1237	68.72	500	34585	69.17	518	35822	68.76	3
Totals	430	29629	68.90	41	2814	68.63	1131	77326	68.37	1172	80140	68.38	
Period rank			3										

33. The difficulty of correctly classifying educators in regard to nationality is quite marked. This is especially true in the colonial and earlier periods of the United States, the days of the Church Fathers and the period of the Renaissance. Educators are and have nearly always been cosmopolitan. As regards England and the United States, it was generally necessary to classify the educator as belonging to that country wherein he gave his principal service. It is natural that the United States should be favored with the inclusion of the largest number of names in a publication of its own country. The lists from other countries, being more selective, tend to add slightly to the average length of life of those thus included.

The five periods of activity, as here designated, are but arbitrary divisions of time which may or may not be best. They seem, however, quite suited to the material involved and interestingly indicate forward movements of society and progress of civilization. The first period, covering the time before the Christian era, contains but 24 names, too few for safe generalization, but sufficient in a selective class, as under consideration, to show trend. The second period, that from 1 to 1000 A. D. inclusive, contains 53 names, still too few to show more than pronounced trend. The third period, that representing the time between 1000 to 1600 A. D., contains 182 names, a number which considered in connection with the selective material gives rather reliable data. The fourth period, that between 1600 to 1800 A. D., contains 483 names, a number quite sufficient, taking into consideration the general nature of the material, to give reliable conclusions. The fifth period, that covering the time since 1800, or more specifically between 1800 and 1910, contains 430 names, 53 less than the fourth period, but again sufficient for reliable deductions.

As already mentioned the material has been organized under the special heading of eight different nations: Greece, Italy, Scotland, Switzerland, France, Germany, England, and the United States; a ninth rubric, "other nations," is given to include all names of other countries, in which Spain is represented with nine names and an average length of life of 62 years, Ireland with six names and an average length of life of 69.5 years, and all others, eighteen names, with an average length of life of 67.39 years. This furnishes the material and steps for nine grades or ranks according to the highest average length of life by nations and five special ranks as to the periods of time.

In the latter, the period preceding the Christian era ranks first with a general average of 71.04 years; that between 1600 to 1800, second, with a general average of 69.21 years; the period since 1800 ranks third with a general average of 68.9 years; the period between 1 and 1000 A. D. ranks fourth with a general average of 67.73 years, and that between 1000 and 1600 ranking fifth, or last, with a general average of 64.77 years. Noting now the ranks by nations, it is seen that Greece ranks first with an average length of life of 71.58 years; Scot-

TABLE II

THE AGE AT DEATH OF 1172 EDUCATORS RECORDED IN MONROE'S "CYCLOPEDIA OF EDUCATION," CLASSIFIED AS TO NATIONALITY OR COUNTRY OF ACTIVITY

Age at death	United States	England	France	Germany	Italy	Greece	Scotland	Switzerland	Other nations	Totals
20										
21										
22										
23										
24										
25										
26										
27				1						1
28										
29		3								3
Totals		3		1						4
30										
31		1		1						2
32		1								1
33		1				1				2
34			1							1
35				1						1
36	3	1	1							5
37	3								1	4
38	1	2								3
39	1									1
Totals	8	6	2	2		1			1	20
40	2								1	3
41	1			1						2
42	3									3
43	4	1		1						6
44	3	3								6
45	3	1		1	1			1	1	8
46	3	2	2	1						8
47	8	6	1	3				1		19
48	5	1	1	2				1	1	11
49	4	2		1	1			1		9
Totals	36	16	4	10	2			4	3	75
50	10	2	2	1	2	1			1	19
51	7	2	3	2	3					17
52	6	5		2	2		1			16
53	5	3	1	2	1	2			1	15
54	7	4	1	4				1		17
55	10	3		3		1		2		19
56	2	3	2	4	1					12
57	5	5	2	3					1	16
58	3	2	1	5	2		1			14
59	10	1	4	6	2					23
Totals	65	30	16	32	13	4	2	3	3	168

Age at death	United States	England	France	Germany	Italy	Greece	Scotland	Switzerland	Other nations	Totals
60	9	7	2	2	1	2	3	1	2	29
61	7	4	2	4	1			1	1	20
62	7	2	1	4	2	1			2	19
63	13	7	3	8	1		1	1	3	37
64	14	7	2	4	1	2			1	31
65	16	9	2	5		2	2	2		38
66	9	4	4	6	2			1		26
67	18	3		3	1	1	6	1		33
68	21	4	2	6			1		1	35
69	14	6	1	4	1	2		1	2	31
Totals	128	53	19	46	10	10	13	8	12	299
70	14	7	5	12	4	2	3			47
71	20	5	1	4	1	2	1		1	35
72	13	10	4	9			1	1	2	40
73	25	12	1	6	2		1	2		49
74	17	8	2	11	1	1		1	1	42
75	17	3	1	3	4	6	1		1	36
76	20	9	3	4	4		1	1		42
77	15	2	2	2	1				2	24
78	24	5	1	4	1		1		1	37
79	12	5	1	2	1	1			1	23
Totals	177	66	21	57	19	12	9	5	9	375
80	13	6	4	3	2	4			1	33
81	13	10	1	4		1				29
82	14	3	3	3					1	24
83	5	3	3	4	1		1	1		18
84	9	2	6	1					2	20
85	13	9	2		1	1		1		27
86	9	2	1	1	1		3	1		18
87	3	3	1	1			1			9
88	4	6	1							11
89	6	5		1		1	1		1	15
Totals	89	49	22	18	5	7	6	3	5	204
90	2	2				2				6
91	6	2		1						9
92	3									3
93	1					1				2
94	2									2
95		2								2
96										
97	1									1
98						1				1
99										
100					1					1
Totals	15	6	0	1	1	4				27

Grand totals: United States, 518; England, 229; France, 84; Germany, 167; Italy, 50; Greece, 38; Scotland, 30; Switzerland, 23; other countries, 33; 1173—41 women, 1131 men.

land second with an average of 70.83 years; the United States third with an average of 68.76 years; England fourth with an average of 68.27 years; France fifth with an average of 68.23 years; Italy sixth with an average of 67.14 years; "other nations" seventh with an average of 66.3 years; Germany eighth with an average of 66.28 years; Switzerland ninth with an average of 64.83 years, six years below the highest and less than four years below the average.

The ranks according to historical periods or the era in which the educator lived may bring surprises to many readers. They, at least, do not offer encouragement to the thought that the span of life is being lengthened through education, science and medical and surgical knowledge and skill. Advances in these directions seem apparent, but their influence, if any, on lengthening the span of life is less marked than many have been led to believe. Such improvement as has been made has been felt chiefly in saving and prolonging to adult age the lives of children and youth; thus changing life's expectancy tables without materially affecting the normal specific longevity. The advance in intelligence and medical and surgical science may be scarcely more than sufficient to keep the balance and overcome the hazardous life and depressing effects caused by the more strenuous, nerve-racking activity demanded of modern social organizations.

The ranks according to nations, also, are quite interesting. It will be seen that the variation in averages among the nations is slight. England, France and the United States differ less than one half year, or less than one per cent. This closeness of averages is quite apparent on examination of the columns marked "averages," especially the column of final "averages." Biologically considered, the tangential forces and artificial boundary lines set up between nations are not of themselves sufficient to prevent intermarriage, race intermixture, the crossing and recrossing of peoples, so that even in blood, inheritance, common and approaching ideals, the entire human family is fast becoming but a single race, an intellectually united people.

The few women that found biographical mention in the "Cyclopedia of Education" have been tabulated and added to the tables for such information as the numbers warrant. The num-

ber here is too small to be of more than suggestive value, but when added to those gathered from other sources and given as part of the larger study, they become of special interest and value. Table I contains other facts of interest, but they seem sufficiently clear as represented in the table and do not call for further mention.

In Table II effort is made to show by years and nations the particular ages at death of the 1,172 educators under consideration, collated and summarized in periods of ten years each and as a whole. There are but four deaths occurring in the twenties and one at a hundred; 20 in the thirties; 75 in the forties; 168 in the fifties; 299 in the sixties; 375 in the seventies; 204 in the eighties, and 27 in the nineties. The largest number of deaths occurring within any ten-year period was 375 in the seventies; then follow in order the sixties, eighties, fifties, forties, nineties, thirties and twenties. The ten highest death years, given in order, are as follows: (1) seventy-three with 49 cases; (2) seventy with 47 cases; (3) seventy-four and seventy-six with 42 cases each; (4) seventy-two with 40 cases; (5) sixty-five with 38 cases; (6) sixty-three and seventy-eight with 37 cases each; (7) seventy-five with 36 cases; (8) sixty-eight and seventy-one with 35 cases each; (9) sixty-seven and eighty with 33 cases each, and (10) sixty-four and sixty-nine with 31 cases each. Thus of the fifteen years mentioned as having the highest death averages, eight belong to the seventies, six to the sixties and one to the eighties. The first five years showing the greatest number of deaths all fall within the seventies. Other observations might be made, but the tables are sufficiently clear to any one particularly interested.

A few general observations may not be wholly amiss:

1. Heredity, though an important factor in determining the span of life, is not the only factor and in many instances not the dominant factor. The three more important factors in affecting the span of life are heredity, environment and intelligent control. There are, however, many other factors, mostly within control, the proper balance and mutual interaction of which tend to affect favorably the span of life.

2. There does not seem to be any fixed limit to the span of life beyond which one can not go. If nature establishes such a norm, it is not now being reached by any appreciable number of the human family. There is a feeling among scholars, reaching almost to a conviction, that by taking thought, barring certain limitations, observing and utilizing ordinary intelligence in conduct and modes of living, it is quite possible for the average individual, under or within the fifties, to extend his span of life and usefulness at least ten and more probably twenty years.

3. In the field of vital statistics it is shown that more males than females are born, but women live on the average from two to six years longer than men, thus balancing the account. It is quite probable that the longer life of women is due, for the most part, to the nature of their occupation and saner living; and it may be that as women take on the occupations, struggles and more hazardous life of men their span of life will be materially shortened, possibly even below that of men engaged in similar activity. Such a thesis is supported by the data here given and corroborated by much additional evidence gathered from the biographies of eminent women.

4. In the processes of growth and development the individual's tenacity of life varies considerably from year to year. On a much larger scale this fluctuation in the tenacity of life is also seen in the growth of groups of individuals and nations, racial periods of weakened vitality when nearly the whole people are affected. This ebb and flow of human vitality, as seen in the large, seems to operate in cycles, sometimes within great cycles of fifty or a hundred years. In the individual development, man passes through a period of weakened vitality in the early fifties which, if successfully passed, gives promise of many more years of usefulness. Medical aid, if intelligently applied in protecting one over these danger periods of weakened vitality, would surely be felt in time in lengthening the span of human life. Courage and a fascinating, fertile problem give tenacity to life, while worry and discouragements sap vitality.

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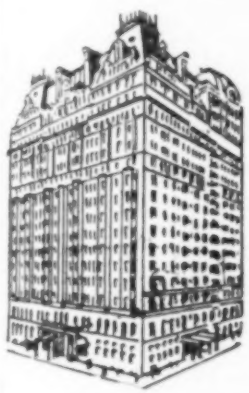

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